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ABSTRACT

This manual is designed primarily to assist Education Peace Corps Volunteers undertake community projects in addition to their primary job assignment. Chapter 1 discusses the factors that determine the measure of success of the project. The process, not the product, is emphasized. Chapter 2 on situational analysis outlines areas of investigation to provide the volunteer with a basic understanding of the circumstances of the community. Chapter 3 includes suggestions for determining the specific needs of the community and the interests and skills of the volunteer. Chapters 4 and 5 provide outlines for a feasibility study and the basic structure of a project plan. Chapter 6 details a six-step approach to problem solving. Chapter 7 deals with evaluation and documentation and provides sample formats. Chapter 8 contains information about technical resources, sources of financial or material aid, and project ideas by sector. Guidelines tell how to use resources appropriately. Chapter 9 details the stages that a group goes through in the course of a project. Three appendixes offer advice from sector specialists on manuals and other resources for projects in their particular area, give short descriptions of actual field projects, and contain two case studies with discussion questions. A short bibliography is included. (YLB)

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Developed By:

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Office of Training and Program Support

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PREFACE

Peace Corps Volunteers may tell you that each day would have to be twice as long to give them enough time to work on their primary job assignments alone, much less on secondary projects. At some point, however--whether because of a summer school break, a bureaucratic delay, or any lull in activity, or simply because s/he has become aware of a need in the community--a Volunteer may undertake a secondary project. It is in response to the ever-increasing number of these projects that this manual is being created.

The Secondary Projects Manual was developed primarily to assist Education Peace Corps Volunteers undertake community projects in addition to their primary job assignment. However, Volunteers from any sector may find this manual helpful. For example, Volunteers desiring additional assistance in small-scale community projects, whether related to their primary assignment or something completely different, should gain some use from the manual. In addition, Host Country Nationals involved in community extension or working with a Volunteer in a community project may find this manual informative. Trainers who work with Education Volunteers in either pre-service or in-service training may wish to consult the manual in regard to sessions on secondary projects.

The manual will help its readers clarify some of the issues involved in community development. This will be particularly useful to those Volunteers who have received little training in development philosophy, as is the case with most Education Volunteers. The manual will serve as a guide for identifying, planning, implementing, evaluating and documenting secondary projects. It will also provide ideas of secondary projects that have been undertaken by Education Volunteers, and case studies of three such projects. The case studies will allow the reader to understand how the philosophies and guidelines contained herein are put into practice.

The Secondary Projects Manual is by no means a comprehensive study of community development, nor of secondary projects per se. The reader will find extensive references to other resources regarding both development philosophy and technical areas. Most of these resources will be available to Volunteers and Peace Corps staff through the Information Collection and Exchange Division (ICE). The manual will be most helpful when used in conjunction with other resources.

What Is a Secondary Project?

Ever since the first Peace Corps Volunteers went overseas in 1961, Education Volunteers have been involved in community projects that may have little to do with their primary assignment. Projects undertaken in addition to a Volunteer's primary job assignment are called "secondary projects", though they often become integral to many Volunteers' experiences.

Secondary projects undertaken by Education Volunteers are as diverse as the individuals and the communities involved. Examples of secondary projects, listed below, demonstrate the variety of activities in which Education Volunteers have been involved:

* A Volunteer in Morocco assigned to teach English in a secondary school helped his community build and equip a language laboratory, complete with headphones, tapes and a recorder.

* A Secondary Education Volunteer in Sierra Leone worked with a group of local farmers to establish a piggery to increase cash income.

* A Volunteer working as an English teacher in the Philippines helped craftsmen in her town enhance their pottery skills and build a more efficient kiln.

* Several Volunteers teaching English in Morocco spend their spare time working as assistants at local orphanages or associations for the handicapped. Some of these teachers work as classroom aides while others develop toys and educational materials for the children.

* Assigned to conduct teacher training workshops in Sierra Leone, one Volunteer spent her evenings teaching literacy to adults in her village.

As is obvious from the examples above, Secondary projects may be as inexpensive and simple as recording folk tales in your village, or they may entail the expense and complexity of building a primary school. Volunteers may or may not supervise the project. While some projects are strictly related to Education, others encompass many different areas, such as food production, school gardens, and energy.

It should not be surprising that Education Volunteers undertake such a great variety of projects, for every Volunteer and every

community is different. The needs, skills and resources of both the community and the Volunteer should be taken into account before a secondary project is begun.

Why a Secondary Project?

Many Country Directors require Education Volunteers to have a secondary project and, in many countries, the host country government has included secondary projects in the Education Volunteers' job descriptions. Beyond strict requirements, however, there are many good reasons to become involved in a secondary project. Some of these reasons are listed below. It is helpful to think, while reading the list below, about which reasons apply to your own situation. Your thoughts on this will help you determine the kind of project in which you would like to become involved.

* You may have extra time on your hands during the school year and wish to find a productive use of that time. In some countries, the school day is relatively short and Volunteers who are not used to so much free time are more comfortable using the time in a structured manner.

* Perhaps you have a summer vacation from school duties, and wish to spend the time working in your community. Many secondary projects are timed to coincide with school vacations.

* You may wish to involve yourself in work that reaches a different population in your community than that of your primary job assignment. For example, some Secondary Education Volunteers choose to undertake projects that involve women in their town, because that is a group that is often excluded from formal academic activities.

* You may be a results-oriented individual who is frustrated by the lack of tangible results in your primary assignment. For such a person, teaching in a classroom can be difficult because the effect of this work is long-term and difficult to measure. If this describes you, you may wish to work on a project that will produce concrete results.

* There may be a specific need in your community that you feel you can work on, or perhaps the community has requested your assistance in solving a particular problem.

The list above is by no means exhaustive, and is only part of project planning, for it focuses on you, the Volunteer. It is

you who must first decide whether to involve yourself in a community project. The sort of project you choose will involve the community's needs, desires and resources as well as your own.

How To Use This Manual

This manual is organized in nine chapters and three Appendices, as described below:

What is a Successful Project? - This first chapter discusses the factors that determine the measure of success of your project, emphasizing community involvement and the ongoing process of a project as opposed to final results.

Situational analysis - It is essential to recognize the needs and desires of your community, and to base your project on issues that reflect its actual situation. This chapter outlines areas of investigation to provide you with a basic understanding of the circumstances of your community.

Needs Assessment - As part of your pre-project planning, a Needs Assessment is a tool to be used to determine the specific needs of the community. The chapter includes suggestions on defining your own interests as well as those of your community's, approaching the community, and narrowing the focus of your project. It also includes a Personal Skills Inventory to help you to identify the skills you already have that may be applicable to a secondary project, and also suggests ways to acquire new skills and information.

Feasibility Study - Once your project idea has been chosen, it will be necessary to evaluate its workability. This chapter gives a list of questions designed to elicit a thorough analysis of the factors involved in making a project work.

Project Planning - This step follows the pre-planning stages discussed above. The chapter provides an outline of the basic structure of a project plan.

Problem Solving - This short chapter details a six-step approach to solving the problems that inevitably arise.

Evaluation and Documentation - Evaluation and documentation should be an ongoing process that occurs from the time a project is conceived. This chapter will deal with those issues that arise during evaluation and will provide example formats for both evaluation and documentation.

Resources - Information about technical resources, sources of financial or material aid, and project ideas by sector are found in this chapter, as well as guidelines for using resources appropriately.

Group Development - This chapter details the stages that a group goes through in the course of a project, giving information on recognizing and managing each stage as it occurs.

Appendices - The first appendix offers advice from sector specialists on manuals and other resources for projects in their particular areas. The second gives short descriptions of actual projects that took place in the field. The third appendix gives more complete case studies of projects undertaken, investigating the manner in which each was chosen, implemented and evaluated. This appendix also includes questions for discussion following the case studies.

CHAPTER ONE

WHAT IS A SUCCESSFUL PROJECT?

A successful project is one that works. You choose a goal, make a plan, follow the instructions, work hard, and in the end you reach your goal. You'll know you've succeeded because you will get an "A", or a raise, or people will applaud. At the very least you'll see for yourself the finished project in action, witness the product it has created. A school is standing; a well has been dug; a co-op has been formed. Success.

Obviously, this scenario is not a very realistic one. You expect that your efforts will not be rewarded in the same ways that you're accustomed to, and you realize that real progress is slow and sometimes hard to see. But do you, really? If you think of the ways that you've been taught to measure success in your life, you will see that one of the most difficult mind-sets to overcome is that which says that success is judged by some final and immediately obvious achievement. Convincing yourself that a successful project encompasses more than just the visible proof of your hard labor is a task in itself, and one that could be crucial to the real success of your project.

One of the things that this manual seeks to accomplish is the broadening of your sense of what constitutes success so that you can approach your project with a modified perspective and work toward a meaningful goal in appropriate ways.

Process vs. Result

A. Viewing the Product as the Ultimate

Eagerness to "do good" and a desire to validate your presence as a Volunteer can lead you to a project which seems to show impressive results but neglects any sort of notable process, as in the case, below:

> "The principal cash crop along lower Cauca River was rice, so the program ... bought the village a thresher and huller along with a motor to run them, and organized a cooperative to market the rice downriver. It also bought a tractor to help increase rice production and a generator to light the village. The first year, dug-out canoes brought tons of rice to the cooperative, which hulled it and sold it at the highest price the farmers had ever received.
>
> I visited about six years after the program closed down to see how the work had continued. In short, it hadn't. The village had become a virtual graveyard of rusting equipment and abandoned hopes. The motor had broken down and had never been repaired, so the huller could not be used either. The thresher had never been used because farmers preferred to

thresh their rice in the field. The tractor had broken down and no one had cleaned up the generator since the year a flood had covered it with mud. The cooperative had disbanded completely; its building, by far the largest in the village, was full of cobwebs."

Several questions should be asked about this project in order to see clearly why, in the long run, it did not succeed:

- Who initiated the project?
- Who decided that the equipment supplied was needed, and who was responsible for its actual purchase?
- In what ways was the community prepared to utilize the equipment supplied?
- What were the community's expectations?

The goal of any development project is to see a community learn to help itself, through practical experience and sound training, not "hand-outs." The community in this case had little to do with any part of this project, so although the intentions of the Volunteers were commendable, the project resulted in failure.

B. Seeing the Process as a Measure of Success

Success is difficult to measure in <u>any</u> case. An example of the process/result dichotomy is given here by an American development worker:

"First of all, giving to and doing things for people have nothing to do with development. On the contrary, they are the very opposite. Secondly, the developmental process, whereby people learn, grow, become organized and serve each other, is much more important than the greener rice field and fatter coin purses that result. The how it is done matters more than the what is accomplished."

"Completion" is something that never really occurs in a successful project. What you are striving for is a process that begins on the first day the idea for the project is born, and continues long after the foundation for it is laid. At all times, the importance of community involvement should be foremost in your mind. The community is the emphasis of your project, and is at the core of the process. The points below are valuable to gaining community involvement.

1) <u>Your project should reflect the community's feelings for what its needs are</u>. You may feel that a particular

project would better serve the community than one it has suggested. It is more important to work on a project that the community has identified with and one in which it will willingly involve itself.

2) "Wait time" is an effective practice when deciding on a secondary project. It takes a while to feel comfortable in your community; it takes even longer to understand it enough to embark on a useful secondary project. Take advantage of the time you have to look around; get ideas from the people who live in the community; find out how they view their community, and what is important to them.

3) The people in your community know best. There is a danger in assuming that you know the needs of others better than they themselves know them. Peace Corps Volunteers should act as facilitators, helping to elicit the indigenous knowledge of the members of their communities.

4) The success of the project is not determined by the size of the "monument." A small project requiring no funds is often better than a "monument." Again, if the community cannot identify with a project and its consequences, it will not utilize the project to its fullest extent. It doesn't really matter that a Volunteer built ten latrines if no one is using them.

In the end, what you will see are a variety of results, all consequences of the processes your project has undergone. Inevitably, throughout the project preparation and implementation a transfer of skills will have taken place; skills both practical and methodological. It is hoped that this becomes an ever-continuing practice. The more the community members become involved, the more practical experience they will have in areas such as:

- problem identification
- organization
- project identification
- planning, implementation, and evaluation

C. Conclusion

Sometimes a project appears to be a "failure" because the original goal was not met: the school building fell down; the farm equipment went unused. At these times, it is especially important to examine the process of the project--as it has taken

place so far, and as it will continue--in any assessment. The route taken toward a goal, even if that goal was never reached, was valuable. Often, it is just as important to learn what does not work as it is to learn what works well, and if the process was meaningful, then an unrealized original goal <u>can</u> be relatively unimportant.

CHAPTER TWO

SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

(Adapted from Peace Corps/Mali Training Materials and the Systematic Project Design Manual)

Communities are incredibly complex. Trying to understand all that is happening can be an impossible task unless one first focuses on one aspect of community life and then relates it to the greater system.

This "analysis" can be an enjoyable activity which you can pursue in your spare time. Talk with people informally; get to know them and let them get to know you. As friendships develop, so will your knowledge of the community, and ways in which you can share your talents and skills will become evident. Above all, be patient. This kind of process cannot take place over the course of a few days or even weeks; it should be a gradual one for both you and your community.

Although the word "community" is used here to connote a village or town, a community is any group of people with common interests. The community a Peace Corps Volunteer works with may be as small as five people or as large as the population of one or more villages. It could be a family, or a small business, or a school. The community is any group, large or small, that will be a part of your project, or that will in some way be affected by it.

The following list is comprised of some general "food for thought" issues which should help you recognize the needs and desires of the community as well as particular problems which may exist. It may also help you measure the extent of your own knowledge and understanding of the community and its culture. It is by no means comprehensive, but is meant to spark your thinking.

Kinship

Role and expectations of children
Family decisions- who makes them and how?
Distribution of labor in the family
Relationship with extended family
Role of the elderly in the family
Discipline in the family
Family obligations
Personal freedom (i.e. privacy...)
Living accomodations (i.e. who lives with whom)
How is polygamy integrated into the family structure?
    -point of view of the wives
    -point of view of the children

Situational Analysis, cont'd

Kinship, cont'd

Rites of passage into adulthood
Allocation of money in the family
Interactions between families: coalitions? conflicts?

Living Arrangements

Type of houses: walls-- brick, wood, bamboo
roof-- tile, zinc, thatch
floor-- tile, wood, cement, dirt
Availability of electricity
Cooking facilities/method of cooking
Ventilation
Availability of screens, windows, doors
Bathing facilities
Toilet facilities (latrines? in house?)
Water supply (always available? variable supply? piped in?)
Water quality (clean?)
Source of water (well, spring, lake, river)

Economic Activities

Who makes the financial decisions in the family?
Who is responsible for the economic welfare of the family?
Major source of income/sustenance
How self-sufficient are the families? the village as a whole?
Number of households with cash income
Total cash income of the community
In what ways are community members dependent economically on external resources?
Availability of goods and services, markets, stores, etc.
How expensive is transportation?
Division of land and labor; who decides?
How have technological change and climate affected the community economy?
System of land ownership
Class hierarchy: based on wealth? on other standards?
To what degree is their class mobility?
How is wealth measured?
Direction and reasons for migration
Existence of shared economic activities: collectives? co-ops?
Number/% of workers involved in non-agricultural work
Number/% of young people (15-30) who are a) employed b) looking for work

Agriculture

Crop cycle
Is crop rotation practiced?

Situational Analysis, cont'd

Agriculture, cont'd

Major crops
Principle inputs and how they are obtained (i.e. tools, seed, fertilizer, insecticides, credit...)
Use of manures
What livestock is raised? For what purposes? By whom?
Interactions between farming, forestry, and livestock

Education

Number of primary and secondary schools
Other schools
Number/% of children in school
Availability of books, supplies, etc.
School structure and curriculum
Family's role in education (child-rearing practices, etc.)
Community's role in education (elders, etc.)
Religion's role
Who goes to school?
Location of school
Goals of education
Economic situation of the education system
Status of educated people
Effect of mass media on education
Languages used in teaching
Which traditions are being passed on? Which are being forgotten?

Recreation

What constitutes leisure time?
If leisure time exists, how do people use it?
What games are played and how?
Favorite sports
Parents' attitudes towards sports
Nature of friendship ; how does one show it?

Communication

Types of education
Taboo topics
Forms of non-verbal comunication
Value of confidentiality
How are emotions displayed?
What is the significance of silence?
Styles of explanation and persuasion
Meaning of body and/or eye contact
How does one find out who trusts who?

Religion

Religious hierarchy
Effect of religion on the role of women
Effect of traditional religion on the beliefs of villagers
Existence of daily rituals
Children's involvement in religion
Effect of religion on daily activities, dress codes, diet,etc.
Attitudes toward death
What is the moral code of conduct?
How are religious leaders chosen? How is their power obtained and transferred?

Sexuality

Beliefs and practices surrounding sex, circumcision, conception, etc.
Attitudes and practices in family planning and birth control
Concept of "love"

Health

Life expectancy
Infant mortality rate
Existence of pre-natal care
Local remedies for illness
Role of healers
Distance to nearest health facility
Services provided at the facility
Do preventive medicines exist? What are they?
Water quality
Existence of latrines; are they covered?
How are emergencies dealt with?
Are people vaccinated? How recently? for which diseases?
Attitudes towards "western" medicines as opposed to herbal medicines
Role of religion in healing
Dental care
Birth rate
Villagers perception of their health needs
How are pesticides used and disposed of?
Rate of congenital birth defects
Health-related superstitions
Which illnesses are most common?

-excessive coughing/sore throats/colds
-malnutrition/poor nutrition
-vomiting/diarrhea
-worms/intestinal problems

Health, cont'd

-malaria
-goiter
-clubfoot, blindness, other physical or mental disabilities

Nutrition

Typical diet: is it balanced?
Food preparation: where is food prepared; what sanitary precautions are taken?
Do women breast-feed or bottle-feed?
Quality of available food

Politics

Organization of community government
Community leaders (formal and informal)
Community decision-making process: by majority? by the elders? by men? by consensus?
How long does it take decisions to be made?
Responsibilities of various political roles
Political history of the society
Effect of politics on sex roles in the culture
How is dissension within the political system dealt with?
How does the political system deal with dissension between groups?
Do "kick-backs" exist within the political system? If so, in what form?
Transference of power from generation to generation (i.e. elections? family ties?)
Is the political system based on an elitist, populist, intellectualist, or other point of view?
Past experience with and feelings towards community development and participation
How often are community meetings held? How are they publicized and organized?
History and experience with other PCVs

Associations

Caste groups: are they clearly defined? What are they?
Groupings based on sex
Are groups formed to solve a particular problem?
Neighborhood organizations
What have these groups undertaken? Accomplished?
Who started the groups and why?
Membership permanent, or fluctuating?

Associations, cont'd

Who are the leaders? What are their responsibilities?
Goals of tne groups
Financing of the groups: through contributions? collective work? external aid?
How are the groups dissolved?
Are there mixed groups?
Heirarchy of associations; what groups supercede others?
Are different family members expected to participate in different organizations?
Are associations linked with those in other communities?
Record-keeping

CHAPTER THREE

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

(Adapted from Systematic Project Design: A Manual for Volunteers)

As you progress with your Situational Analysis, the setting in which you will be working is becoming more familiar. At this point in planning a project, in an effort to begin to narrow your focus and to insure that the steps you are taking towards a project are appropriate for your community, a NEEDS ASSESSMENT should be done.

What is a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

A NEEDS ASSESSMENT is the process of identifying and describing the needs that will be satisfied by a project. A NEEDS ASSESSMENT verifies that a project is both needed and wanted by the community.

Why a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

A community has many needs. Any given project cannot satisfy all needs; priorities must be identified. You and the community may or may not agree on priorities. A NEEDS ASSESSMENT will help reach agreement. Later, you and other community members will plan the project in detail. The NEEDS ASSESSMENT stage will determine whether the project has community support and if it will improve the quality of life of the community.

When do you perform a NEEDS ASSESSMENT?

You perform a NEEDS ASSESSMENT before you and your counterparts begin planning the project. This step will enable you to focus on a specific problem or need facing the community.

Defining Your Interests; Approaching The Community

In choosing a project, two basic issues must be addressed:

1) The personal interests, skills, and motivation of the Volunteer

2) The needs and resources of the community, not just as the the PCV perceives them, but also as the members of the community perceive them.

It is important to keep in mind that assessment of the needs of the community is not a one-sided endeavor. At the very outset, members of the community should be involved in the decision-making process. A special effort should be made to:

-exchange ideas

-listen to what people in the community say

-encourage participation from all segments of the population

"Projects work best when the intended beneficiaries are listened to and their ideas respected, and indeed, when the projects are initiated, designed, and managed by the beneficiaries themselves. Mistakes may be made and failures may occur, but if the people directly affected are in charge, they are likely to learn and emerge stronger for the next challenge."

-Peter Hakim, "Lessons from the IAF Experience," (Reprinted in Peace Corps' Small Projects Design and Management manual).

A. Considering Your Needs, Interests and Skills

In order for a project to succeed, you, as well your counterparts, must be motivated by and interested in its purpose and its goals. Becoming involved in a project in which you have no interest will be doing neither you nor your community any favors. Honest and serious consideration must be given to the following:

- What do you hope to get out of your involvement in a secondary project?

- With which segment of the population would you prefer to work?

men/women	mothers
boys/girls	farmers
children	the elderly, etc.
students	

-In which field/area of interest would you most like to work?

education/literacy	construction
health	community organizing
agriculture	fisheries
income generation	forestry, etc.
water/sanitation	

-How much time can you afford to invest in a secondary project without having it interfere with your primary job assignment?

-Will this be an on-going, year-round project, or will it primarily be undertaken during the summer and/or vacations?

-How might your secondary activities affect your reputation in your primary job (i.e. as a teacher), and in the community in general?

-Will you be present for the project's completion? How might your departure affect the project?

B. Personal Skills Inventory

Many Volunteers may feel that they simply do not have the technical skills nor formal training necessary to carry out a particular project. In fact, they may indeed already possess skills and abilities acquired in other endeavors which could be applied to new situations. You must discover your capabilities and fields of interest and begin to look for an outlet in the community.

In addition, there are numerous ways in which Volunteers can learn new skills and track down the information they need to plan and implement their projects step by step.

1. Identifying Your Own Skills

a) What have you accomplished in the past?

b) What skills were needed? (listing accomplishments and identifying skills used may be helpful)

c) What do you enjoy doing in your free time?

Needs Assessment, cont'd

d) What are your strengths and weaknesses?

e) What skills are needed to implement the project?

-Which skills do you already have?

-Which do you need?

2. Acquiring New Skills and Information

a) Talk to other Volunteers!

For Example:

-If you want to start a small tree nursery, contact a a forestry PCV.

-If you want to build a latrine or a well, contact a water/sanitation PCV.

-Find out what the PCVs from other sectors are doing. They might be able to put you to work on one of their projects, or help you get started on your own.

b) Contact the appropriate APCD, depending on the nature of your secondary project. Other members of the in-country staff, and Peace Corps in-country resource centers should be able to help you as well.

c) Take advantage of other development professionals (i.e. A.I.D., Catholic Relief Services, etc.) who may be working in the region. They can give you some valuable advice.

d) Stateside resources: The ICE office at Peace Corps headquarters Washington is filled with "how-to" manuals on a wide range of subjects. There should be an ICE Catalog at your Peace Corps office containing a comprehensive list of these manuals which can be pouched to you upon request.

* See Appendix "A" for lists of those manuals specifically recommended for use by the Sector Specialists in Washington.

e) VITA publications

Several Peace Corps countries have organized "talent banks" in order to establish a network between Volunteers working in different sectors. PCVs fill out a form requesting information about their backgrounds, training, and experience in a variety of areas (i.e. not just the area in which the PCV works), and these forms are filed at the Peace Corps office. Those PCVs interested in starting a project in an area in which they have little background can then look in the file and see if there is someone in-country who already has the necessary background. Such a person can help the PCV evaluate the proposal and decide if the project is feasible. (see sample form on page 83)

C. Approaching the Community

What are the major problems which face the community? How does the community govern itself? What sort of hierarchy exists? To discover the answers to these and other questions, you should probably first talk to those people with whom you already work or spend time.

If you are a teacher, the headmaster or other faculty members may be aware of certain needs or problems within the community. They may be able to offer suggestions and/or point you in the direction of other members of the community who could provide additional ideas. Or perhaps they are already involved in a project and could use your help. Members of your host family or your neighbors may be able to furnish the same sort of information.

Fellow PCVs and professionals from other international development organizations may also be able to provide you with some valuable insights into the needs of your particular region or community.

Narrowing Your Focus

(Adapted from Helping Health Workers Learn, reprinted as "Five Steps in Assessing Needs" in Peace Corps' In-Service Training Manual)

Once you have become familiar with your community, you may want to zero in on a specific group within that community, and on some more direct issues or problems affecting people on an individual basis. These are steps that will take time to accomplish, as they depend on the establishment of trust between you and the group. Without this trust, you will have difficulty gaining a clear sense of the community and what its problems and needs are.

Needs Assessment, cont'd

a) Ask people in the community to speak of their <u>own</u> problems, both big and small. Ask questions that call for specific answers so that people can discuss problems from their own experiences.

Example: "What is the worst problem you and your family had this year?" (good, specific.) rather than, "What are the worst problems facing your village?" (too vague.)

b) Although the focus will be on common interest or area of expertise, encourage people to mention other problems and concerns. Many times the causes can be traced back to an aspect of the problem to which your knowledge can be applied.

c) Consider the relative importance of the different problems. List the problems.

i.e.) children have worms
chickens died
too far to water
not enough to eat
crops failed
road is impassable in rain
toothaches
babies have diarrhea
food in store too costly

d) Examine the problems listed and think about their causes and possible solutions. Then group similar items together. In this list, there are at least two groupings:

-children have worms; too far for water; babies have diarrhea

-chickens died; not enough to eat; food in store too costly

e) Re-examine the problems and the groupings and decide which ones you want to look at more closely.

-What are the causes of the problems (physical and social, coming from the inside or outside of the community?)

-What are the people's attitudes, traditional beliefs, and concerns toward the problems?

-Can these problems be solved? How?

-Who will be involved in the decision-making process?

At this point, you may want to continue with your "informal survey" through observation and conversation, or you may feel ready to talk to members of the larger community as a group. Those problems with which you are concerned can then be freely discussed and debated.

A Note on Wants and Needs

(Adapted from Systematic Project Design: A Handbook for Volunteers)

What if you disagree with the community's priorities for projects?

When doing a "Needs Assessment," you may have a different point of view from the villagers. For example, in a village with 1500 people and ten latrines, many villagers may have hook or round worms and diarrhea. You think the village needs sanitary latrines and clean and safe water. When you perform your needs analysis, however, you find that the villagers do not agree. Some want latrines, others want accessible water, others may not be interested in latrines.

Four points should be made:

1) Wants are different from needs. People may want things which they do not need and which may harm them:

   -adults want cigarettes
   -children want candy

People may have unrecognized needs (the latrine example above).

2) To gain the confidence of the community, you should accept and focus on one community-felt need.

3) Recognize a difficult problem. When all the available evidence indicates the community really needs something, but they want something else, you are faced with a difficult problem:

   -if you ignore what the community wants, you are likely to lose their support and interest.

   -if you support and carry out just what the community wants, you may be involved in a project which will benefit only a small number of people or may not be used by the community at all.

4) Analyze the problem, possible resolutions. When faced with a conflict of needs versus wants, ask yourself and the group these questions:

   a) Who will benefit from the project?

   b) Will the project require changes in the behavior of the people? Will it require changes in the behavior of the group?

   c) When completed, will the project's product be ignored because it requires changes in behavior which are new and strange?

   d) Is it possible to accept what the community wants as your project and then develop a strategy such as a community education program focusing on community needs?

CHAPTER FOUR

THE FEASIBILITY STUDY

(Adapted from the following Peace Corps publications: In-Service Training Manual; Resources for Development; and Systematic Project Design)

Once you have come up with a project idea, the next step is to investigate its feasibility. The purpose of such an investigation is to examine those factors (i.e. cultural, technical, financial, political, etc.) which may influence the degree to which your project will succeed. By analyzing these factors, you will be able to estimate the chances of the project achieving its goals as well as determine how you and your community can improve the likelihood and level of its success. Ask yourself "How can we make the project succeed?", thereby assuring that you take an active, not passive, role in its design. Ignoring these factors may mean failure for a plan which might have succeeded had you made a few simple adjustments or adaptations.

The questions listed below provide an outline with which you can conduct a feasibility study.

1) What problem is the project designed to address? The more clearly you and the community are able to define the problem and its causes and consequences, the closer the project will come to solving the problem.

2) What are the primary goals and objectives of the project? Setting realistic, attainable goals is crucial to the success of the project. You may want to break the project down into a series of smaller projects or tasks, each with a limited objective. This will allow you and your community to build on past successes and create greater self-confidence while improving skills which will then be applied to achieving the next goal.

3) How will these objectives be reached? What exactly are the steps that must be taken to achieve the desired results? They should be carefully scheduled in a logical order and be within the scope of the community's resources. You must also think about where the project will take place.

4) How will this project benefit the community? Who will it benefit? Try to estimate the number of direct, as well as indirect, beneficiaries of the project. Think, too, about the permanence of the benefits of the project.

5) Will anyone in the community "lose" as a result of the project? Why or why not? Try to predict the possible negative effects of the project. For example, an irrigation project may lead to higher rice production but also increase the incidence of schistosomiasis by providing a hospitable environment for the snail which transmits the disease. The potentially negative effects must be weighed against the benefits of the project when deciding whether to go ahead with the idea. Use your network of fellow PCVs, staff, and community members to evaluate your ideas.

6) How do you think the community will react to the project idea? Will changes in "community behavior" be required? Will the social structure of the community be changed in any way? It is rare for a project idea to gain the immediate support of everyone in the community. It may be helpful to list where both support and opposition lie and why. Also consider the following:

   - Do you have the support of the necessary local government agencies? The community leaders?
   - How can you best use community support to your benefit?
   - How can you overcome opposition to your project?
   - How can you change the project to make it more acceptable?
   - Is this project your idea or someone else's? How will this affect the project?
   - Do the people in the community recognize and/or acknowledge the problem which your project is designed to solve?

7) How should you introduce the idea to the community? Who is the best person to actually introduce the idea to the community and its leader(s)? It may be you, your counterpart, or someone else. Look at both the formal and informal structure of your community before you put forward your idea.

8) Will you involve the leaders of the community in implementing the project? If so, what exactly will they do? What assistance will the community provide to the project?

9) Will the project be maintained/replicated by the Host Country Nationals? Do not undertake a project that will create dependence rather than independence. At most, you should be a facilitator in implementing the project, and your role should be transitory.

10) How much time will it take to complete the project? It is important to allow adequate time when planning and implementing the project, especially when requesting outside information, funding, and/or materials. You should also be aware of certain restraints on people's time and availability. For example, it would be unrealistic to expect the community to provide labor for a construction project during the busy farming season. Timing may also affect the availability of resources. In addition, setting up a timetable may help provide a framework for the completion of intermediate tasks and for the evaluation process.

11) What resources will be needed to implement the project? Where will you find it/them? Resources can be divided into two basic categories:

- Monetary costs: These should include estimates to complete as well as maintain the project (i.e. parts replacement, labor, repair, etc.). Do the benefits justify these costs? Is it possible to reduce the cost and still achieve the same objective?

- Non-monetary costs: i.e. people, time, vehicles, supplies, tools, space, etc. (Often, these are referred to as "in-kind" contributions by the community or organization.)

The more complicated your project is, the more thorough the cost analysis should be. Generally speaking, it is best to keep the number of outside resources to a minimum and to first engage the interest, cooperation, and skills of the people who will benefit from the project. The more locally-based the project, the better.

12) How will these resources be allocated? Priorities must be set early so that resources are not depleted before the crucial stages of the project are reached.

13) What are the main obstacles to the project's success? (excerpted from Resources in Development)

Obstacles should be anticipated in the planning stage of the project and possible ways of overcoming them should be outlined so that undue delays don't occur at crucial times during the project. There may be legal restrictions on the community's ability to handle money from funding agencies or customs duties to be paid on imports. Contacts with the proper government agencies may take time to establish. Political or economic instability may make it difficult to get materials or support for the project. A long lead time may be required for ordering imported materials or applying for outside funding.

There may be a reluctance among some members of the community to participate in or support the project. Change involves a certain risk, and what seems like a small risk to a development worker may be a large one for a subsistence farmer. If the project has the support of the majority of the community members, they can help the others overcome this resistance to change.

It is important to remember that there is always more than one way to achieve any objective. Alternative approaches to the problem the community has identified should be outlined and these questions asked. Once the community has evaluated several possible approaches in light of these questions, its members must determine which project best fits the circumstances.

A Final Note

As you gather this information, it should gradually become clear to you whether your project is culturally, politically, economically, and technically feasible, and whether it encourages independence and self-reliance.

What can happen when these factors are overlooked? One Volunteer whose project entailed building a library had this to say:

"In an area where a school or a library is badly needed, the building itself- the lot, the walls, the roof, and the furniture-is important, but what is more important still is that the people understand that it is more than just a new building in town. What good is it if they can't relate what the impact of having a school for their children to attend will mean to them...

"At first, the place was great. We packed it with good books, and the kids loved it. In two months, the books were torn, dirty, and falling apart. Within four months, unless we locked the books up, they would be unusable. My 'monument' was cracking. I didn't realize I had built it on a sandy foundation. The kids hadn't been properly prepared for it; rather, I pushed it on them without thinking of anything but getting it done before I left the country. In the rush to have something to show for my time, I overlooked some very basic problems.

"This is not to say that Volunteers should not undertake the construction of tangible items such as schools, houses, and libraries. On the contrary, these are valuable items to any society. But, when the structures are not understood by the users, they are not fulfilling their most important purpose: to serve the public. People must understand an item to appreciate and use it correctly. They must be able to identify themselves and their lives with the structure. It must be in context with their way of living, or their lives must be changed to be in context with the item. In either case, a new level of understanding is required."

- "Success? In Whose Terms?"
Robert A. Joy, RPCV, Venezuela

CHAPTER FIVE

PROJECT PLANNNING

(Adapted from Systematic Project Design and Small Project Design and Management)

By now, you and the community have completed the situational analysis, the needs assessment, and the feasibility study. From the situational analysis, you know the problems, stengths, and resources within the community. From the needs assessment, you and the community have defined a project which addresses important needs and/or problems. From the feasibility study, you have determined that the project has the support of key community leaders, and realistic goals have been set.

The next phase is to plan the project on a step-by-step basis. This will enable you to begin the project and move progressively, objective by objective, towards its completion. Planning is always necessary; the extent of the planning depends on the complexity of your project. Planning decisions are made on the basis of the needs assessment and should continue throughout the project's implementation.

Outlined below is the basic structure your project plan should take. An example of a completed project plan can be found at the end of this chapter.

1) Statement of the Problem

   a) What problem is the project designed to remedy?

2) Project Goal

   a) Description of the project.

   b) What is the expected final outcome of the project?

   c) What will be the extent of the changes or effects of the project?

   d) Who are the targeted groups, individuals, or beneficiaries of the project?

   e) When will the project be completed?

   f) Will the project be maintained/replicated by host country nationals, and if so, how?

3) Objectives

It is crucial that clearly defined, attainable and measurable objectives are set. Broad or vague objectives, no matter how inspiring, are not conducive to effective action.

Each objective should represent a step towards realizing the project's final goal. Setting measurable objectives should also enable you to establish a tentative timetable or schedule. In addition, a plan for the documentation and evaluation of each objective and the final outcome should be included.

4) Identifying Tasks

After objectives are set, each objective should be broken down into detailed tasks. It is essential to define, at each level, all of of the conditions necessary to reach the next set of objectives. When deciding on these tasks, the following information should be included:

a) A description of the task

b) The estimated initiation and completion dates of the task

c) A list of necessary resources and where to obtain them (how, when, from whom, how much, etc.)

d) Delegation of responsibility/division of labor

e) Daily work schedule

Make sure that each task is logically ordered to meet the stated objective as efficiently as possible.

Community Involvement

Do not develop a plan without the complete involvement of community leaders and other members of the community. Always keep in mind whom the project is supposed to benefit. The people who will be affected by the project know best what they want, and they have a right to be involved in all aspects of the project, including the planning. If these people are not committed to the project, they will not be motivated to participate in its planning or implementation.

You and/or others involved in the project may want to start a community group or organization to facilitate the planning of the project and ensure community participation.

Flexibility

(Adapted from "Lessons from the IAF Experience," by Peter Hakim. Reprinted in Small Project Design and Management)

The most productive projects are not necessarily those that have achieved their initial or expected goals. Successful projects are often those that have taken unusual turns and have reached unexpected, inadvertent outcomes. Therefore, flexibility when planning and implementing a project is essential. Efforts to restrict projects to their original purposes can stifle creativity, prevent the emergence of new solutions, and deny opportunities for taking advantage of changing circumstances and new ideas. Approach the project with an open mind and be willing to consider alternative solutions and/or plans when they present themselves.

OBJECTIVE #1 FORM GROUP COMPLETION DATE 4/10/85

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) Discuss need for meeting with school officials	3/28/85	PCV and another teacher	----------	----------	----------
2) Identify participants	3/30/85	PCV, another teacher, and school administrator(s)	----------	----------	----------
3) Set meeting date, place, and agenda	3/30/85	"	meeting place	school building	----------
4) Invite paticipants (i.e. parents, local officials, students)	4/3/85	Headmaster	posters to advertise, invitations	school paper supplies	
5) Hold meeting - present project idea - get feedback - form task force of parents, local officials, etc. - Decide on date for task force to meet	4/10/85	Facilitator: PCV Secretary: Abdul	secretary to take minutes of the meeting; facilitator		Abdul is senior math teacher at the school

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OBJECTIVE #2 CHOOSE SITE AND DESIGN BUILDING PLAN COMPLETION DATE 5/10/85

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) Choose site	4/20/85	village chief	----------	----------	land in school compound is owned by village
2) Set up first meeting with task force	4/25/85	headmaster	meeting room	school	logistics, invitations
3) 1st meeting - discuss size, site, plan, etc. of building - choose person responsible for design - decide on date for the next meeting	4/30/85	facilatator- PCV secretary- Abdul	meeting room	school	At the meeting, Mohamed, the village carpenter volunteers to design the building
4) 2nd meeting - present design - discuss design - finalize design - decide on date for the next meeting	5/10/85	facilitator- PCV secretary- Abdul Mohamed presents design	meeting room	school	

OBJECTIVE #3 DETERMINE NECESSARY RESOURCES COMPLETION DATE 6/1/85

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) List all material resources needed to construct building	5/20/85	Mohamed	----------	----------	----------
2) Set up meeting	5/20/85	headmaster	meeting room	school	logistics and reminders
3) Hold meeting - Present list - Group determines which resources (labor and materials) are locally available and sufficient - Decide on date for all-village meeting to request volunteer help in obtaining local resources - Determine which resources are not locally available and where/how much it will cost to obtain them. - Discuss how to get money and obtain resources not locally available.	6/1/85	facilitator- PCV secretary- Abdul Mohamed presents list headmaster chief, Abdul, PCV	meeting room	school	---------- group decides to: 1) ask students to have bake sale 2) seek help from regional ministerial representatives 3) apply for Peace Corps Partnership funds for remaining financial needs

OBJECTIVE #4 OBTAIN RESOURCES COMPLETION DATE 12/1/85

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) Set up meeting with entire village	6/5/85	headmaster	meeting room	school	logistics, invitations
2) Hold meeting - present progress of task force (chief) - present design (Mohamed) - present list of locally available resources and request volunteer help from villagers (chief) - discuss and get commitments for: a) labor for gathering materials b) labor for making bricks c) labor for construction	6/10/85	facilitator: Abdul secretary: PCV Presenters: 1) Chief 2) Mohamed 3) headmaster			a) group decides to have students make bricks b) villagers volunteer for specific tasks (i.e. general labor, carpentry, masonry, etc.) c) group decides to hold village work day to gather materials
- present plans for obtaining outside resources (headmaster) - explain Peace Corps Partnership (PCV)					group agrees to having a bake sale, approaching regional officials, and applying for PC Partnership money Abdul and PCV agree to write proposal for PC Partnership; chief will write letter of endorsement

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OBJECTIVE #4 OBTAIN RESOURCES, cont'd COMPLETION DATE 12/1/85

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
3) Approach regional officials	6/20/85	headmaster	----------	----------	unsuccessful. Funds not available
4) School holds bake sale	7/1/85	headmaster	baked goods, place, sellers	students, school grounds	bake sale is successful- students raise $30
5) Write Peace Corps Partnership proposal	7/1/85	Abdul and PCV	letter of endorsement	chief	submitted on 7/1 to Peace Corps headquarters
6) Make bricks	10/1/85	headmaster	labor, clay, sand, molds	students gather clay, sand, and make bricks	work has been delayed due to summer rainy season; no word yet from PC Partnership
7) Dig hole for foundation	10/20/85	Mohamed (the carpenter)	labor, shovels	village volunteers, chief	----------
8) Purchase materials	11/20/85	PCV and Abdul	money	PC Partnership; bake sale funds	PC Partnership funds have arrived
9) Hold village work day	12/1/85	chief; Abdul; Mohamed	labor to gather sticks, sand, clay	village volunteers	----------

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OBJECTIVE #5 CONSTRUCT SCHOOL CLASSROOMS COMPLETION DATE 2/5/86

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) Lay foundation	12/10/85	Mohamed and Abdul	labor, cement, mortar, tools	village volunteers; materials already purchased or gathered	----------
2) Lay bricks	1/1/86	"	labor, bricks, mortar, reinforcement rods, tools	"	----------
3) Construct doors and windows	1/1/86	"	wood, nails, tools, labor	Mohamed; wood already gathered	----------
4) Construct roof	2/1/86	"	wooden beams, nails, zinc pan sheets, tools, labor	village volunteers	----------
5) Inauguration/celebration	2/5/86	"	food and beverages, band	chief donates food and drink; village band	a great time!

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OBJECTIVE #6 EVALUATION AND DOCUMENTATION COMPLETION DATE 3/1/86

TASK	DATE TO BE COMPLETED	INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE	RESOURCES NECESSARY	SOURCE OF RESOURCES	COMMENTS
1) Send thank you letters from students to partner school	12/1/85	Abdul and PCV	paper	school	PCV sends letters to PC Headquarters via pouch
2) Send 2nd "cultural package" to PC Partner school	1/10/86	"	crafts, photos, letters	students make crafts and write letters; PCV takes photos	----------
3) Send 3rd "cultural package" to PC Partner and final report	2/15/86	"	final report, letters, and photos	PCV and Abdul write final report; PCV takes photos of completed project; students write letters	----------
4) Write article for country Peace Corps newsletter and report for PC files	3/1/86	PCV	paper	PCV	----------

CHAPTER SIX

PROBLEM SOLVING

(Adapted from The Role of the Volunteer in Development)

Despite careful planning and preparation, problems still may arise as you and the community get the project underway. Throughout the problem-solving process, try not to "imply a solution." In other words, work on identifying the problem rather than looking for an answer. Listed below is a six-step approach to solving a problem.

1) Identify and clarify the problem - Once the problem has been identified, decide on the main issues of the problem. If necessary, reassess the objectives of the project.

2) Analyze the problem - Gather the necessary facts and information to better understand the problem and determine its possible causes.

3) Develop alternative solutions - List and examine all possible ways of solving the problem. An effective way to accomplish this is to "brainstorm." Brainstorming involves three to five minutes of suggestions; someone records all suggestions from group members without criticism or comment. Later, the group weeds out the impractical or unworkable options.

4) Select the best solution - Choose the best alternative from among the possible solutions listed above. Keep in mind that what seems to be the ideal alternative may not actually be the best one. The best alternative is based on factors such as budget, time, politics, etc.

5) Design a plan of action and implement the solution - Once a solution has been chosen, outline the specific objectives and tasks required to reach the desired goal, and then put the solution into action.

6) Evaluate - Determine the effects and ramifications of the solution. Was it successful in solving the problem?

CHAPTER SEVEN

EVALUATION AND DOCUMENTATION

Evaluation is a necessary tool for effective project control. It entails watching, influencing, and documenting key activities and accomplishments, and enables you to obtain feedback on the project's operation. Obtaining feedback alerts you to problems before they become too serious. It allows you, if necessary, to change direction, to modify timetables, to arrange for additional materials and supplies, or to resolve disputes. The specific items to monitor and evaluate will vary between projects, but they usually include:

1) project activities and progress towards stated objectives

2) project expenses to date

3) resource use and availability

4) appropriateness of established timetable and necessary schedule changes

5) administrative issues

Evaluation is done before, during, and after a project. Evaluation should take into account the data which was collected during the project planning phase (i.e. goals, project tasks, and resource requirements for the project.)

While conducting an evaluation, you need to be objective and realistic in your assessments. Frequent feedback between you and the community should help you identify problems and mistakes to be avoided in the future. If the project progresses smoothly, cite the reasons for its success.

Guidelines for Evaluation

The first evaluation should be conducted when the project is started and is part of the needs assessment and project planning phases:

- Are all necessary resources and labor now available as planned? Describe any shortages.

- If either material or human resources are not available, what alternative courses of action are possible?

- Have one or more of the objectives of the project been partially met?

- Have any of the specified tasks been completed?

Example

At the beginning of a project to stock fish ponds you might ask the following questions:

- Are baby fish, equipment and supplies available?
- Are villagers able to provide the labor?
- Does the person responsible for the project (you and/or counterparts, etc.) know how to stock ponds and have access to "how-to" manuals or expert advice?
- Are there any fish in the pond now? If so, describe the type of fish and estimate the number.

Progress Reports

To evaluate a project's progress, refer to your list of objectives and tasks:

- Determine whether the listed tasks are being carried out successfully.
- Are they being carried out on schedule?
- Describe any problems. What remedial steps will you take?
- Determine the possible causes of the problem(s).
    * Is the problem getting better or worse?
    * Are there several problems related to each other?
    * Who/what does the problem affect?

Final Evaluation

The last phase of the project is the final evaluation and follow-up. While it is possible to evaluate a project immediately after its completion, actual results, both anticipated and unanticipated, may not become apparent until the project has been operating for some time. Thus, you may want to conduct frequent evaluations for as long as is possible or necessary.

The purpose of the final evaluation is to:

- assess the overall results of the project against the original plan.

- determine whether the project needs to be "fine-tuned" or modified in any way to achieve its ultimate objectives.

- provide data for similar projects in the future.

Evaluative Criteria

In order to insure the involvement of the community in all steps of the project, a final evaluation should be conducted with the community. Below are criteria by which you and the community can evaluate your project.

Appropriateness

How appropriate were your plans and strategies to meeting the project's goal? Were the tasks appropriate to the objectives? How could the project have been improved?

Maintenance

Will the community be able to maintain/replicate the project? How? By whom?

Impact

Given the size of the problem, did the project "make a difference"? Was it worth doing? Who did the project benefit?

Effectiveness

How successful was the project in reaching the stated objectives and the final goal? Did the expected level of change occur? If not, why?

Efficiency

Were the necessary resources obtained? Were they sufficient? Did the project remain within its allotted budget? How costly was the project compared to the benefits attained? Were these benefits worth the money and other resources used?

Side Effects

Were there any secondary benefits or unexpected outcomes as a result of the project? Were there any negative "side effects?" What were they?

Project Follow-Up

Related to and often arising from the evaluation of a project is the need for project follow-up. Follow-up activities may range from determining how unmet needs can be satisfied to revising project tasks and/or objectives. For a project to achieve its goal, smaller or related projects may need to be implemented. Following up is one aspect of the project manager's role which can involve considerably more commitment than

s/he initially envisioned. But if following up means making the project fully operational, then it is wise to undertake these activities as quickly as possible. Successful follow-up procedures can then be incorporated into future project plans in other settings.

Follow-up action may include educational activities such as "user" education workshops or informal seminars, plays, skits, puppet shows, special lesson plans for class, home visits, community gatherings and discussions, etc.

Other questions to ask when deciding on how to follow up are:

- Is the project/project's product still in use? Is it being maintained?

- What can be done to ensure proper use and periodic maintenance?

Documentation

The importance of documentation cannot be over-emphasized. All evaluation should result in the careful documentation of experiences which can provide insights and lessons for improving project planning and project management in the future. A journal or daily log is an excellent tool for both marking accomplishments and identifying problems. Doing so, along with recording formal and informal feedback and data from the evaluation, should enable you and your counterparts to write a report summarizing the project as it progresses and upon its completion.

What to do with Reports and Documentation

Copies of progress reports and final evaluations should be given to the following people, as appropriate:

- All funding sources and/or sponsors of the project;

- Local officials, ministers, etc.;

- Your host country national supervisor(s) (headmaster, chief...);

- The community group;

- Peace Corps in-country staff;

- Other Volunteers interested in pursuing the same type of project.

Evaluation, cont'd

You may want to consider printing a report or summary of your secondary project in Peace Corps' in-country newsletter. Presenting a talk on the project at an in-service training or an all Volunteer conference might also be helpful to other PCVs. In addition, the Education Sector at Peace Corps' headquarters in Washington is very interested in receiving reports and documentation on secondary projects so that Volunteers in other countries may benefit from your experiences. Please pouch all information to:

Information Collection and Exchange
Room M-707
Peace Corps
806 Connecticut Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20526

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESOURCES

(Adapted from Resources for Development and Small Project Design and Management)

What is a Resource?

Resources are essential to the implementation of any project, regardless of its size or scope. Generally speaking, anything used to reach a development project goal may be considered a resource. Often, the Volunteer's greatest role is to help the community recognize and use the resources that exist within itself as well as to link the community with outside resources. And, of course, you, as a Peace Corps Volunteer, represent an invaluable resource yourself.

Types of Resources

Resources may be classified as human, informational, material, technical, financial and natural. Each of these types of resources is available to some extent in every community.

Human Resources are the people who contribute to, or participate in, a development project. For the most part, community residents will constitute the majority of human resources available to a given project. For example, traditional village leaders are an important source of organizational skills and support. Village crafts people, local shop owners, midwives and farmers also have valuable skills to offer. All members of the community can provide ideas, labor or other resources; therefore, no segment of the population should be overlooked. At every stage of a project, support from and participation of community members is crucial to that project's success.

Human resources may also include people outside the community, such as other Volunteers, technical advisors, trainers, extension workers, regional or national government officials, missionaries and representatives of other development agencies.

Finally, when deciding how to use human resources, consider more than just the number of people that the project requires; consider, too, the personal and cultural attitudes, skills, and services necessary to implement the project.

Informational Resources are the ideas and data contained in books, research reports, films, records and other media, as well as the individuals and organizations that produce them. Such resources help increase the Volunteers' skills, abilities and knowledge which, in turn, enables them to improve the overall quality of their projects.

Local government agencies, research stations and development organizations working in the area often are useful sources of information. In addition, Peace Corps' Information Collection and Exchange Division, and many of the other organizations listed in this manual also provide informational resources. The information these groups have acquired frequently is drawn from the contributions of communities and development workers in the field.

Technical Resources Technology is the application of knowledge, materials and methods to practical and productive purposes. Any technology should be appropriate to the values and conditions of the community. When evaluating the appropriateness of a technology, the social, cultural and natural environment of the community, as well as the economic and technical feasibility of the project, must be taken into consideration.

A traditional technology that has stood the test of time usually has done so for a reason. This is not to say that new technologies will never be appropriate or an improvement on the old. Rather, technology that is more "advanced" or "modern" is not necessarily universally applicable. The best technology will work in all conditions for an indefinite period of time. (Additional information regarding the use of appropriate technical resources can be found under "Guidelines for Appropriate Resources" in the next section.)

Natural Resources are the physical, chemical and biological features in and around the community. These characteristics of the community's environment include sunlight and wind; topographical features; surface and ground water; stone, clay, and other building materials; minerals and soil; trees and plants; and domestic and wild animals.

Many natural resources are non-renewable. Therefore, the community must plan to conserve and protect them against unwise or unnnecessary depletion. Renewable natural resources such as water, plant, and animal life also require careful management so that the rate at which they are used does not exceed their natural rate of recovery.

Material Resources consist of manufactured items such as tools, supplies, textbooks, seeds or animals. Think carefully about your own project: What material resources are necessary? Which are the most important? Could locally available resources be used in place of imported materials?

Financial Resources refers to money that can be used for development projects. These resources may be in the form of cash gifts, personal savings, development bank loans, foundation grants or locally-raised funds.

Often, financial resources exist within the community, and fundraising activities such as carnivals and community gardens are very useful for generating small amounts of money. A direct appeal to the community for funds is another possible approach. Success will depend in part on the amount of money needed, the effectiveness of the appeal, the size and wealth of the community and how much the community wants the project.

For several reasons, local funding sources should be tapped before any attempt is made to request funding from outside the community. For example, the risk of creating a dependency on external funding is significant. Also, the availability of such resources is limited, and the competition for them is intense. Finally, because outside funding can be cut off at any time for reasons beyond the control of the community, the project can be easily undermined.

Securing fund requires energy, patience, and time in addition to skills in research, writing, communications, diplomacy, and some knowledge of financial management. Be aware that time constraints sometimes make it necessary to find funds far in advance, and the application process may be long and involved.

Guidelines For Appropriate Resources

The availability of a given resource does not necessitate its use on a particular project, nor does it guarantee its appropriateness for that project. Often a community must decide which of the available resources would be most appropriate to use for a given project. It should be emphasized that the process of selecting appropriate resources is most effective when the entire community or group is involved. They will know what is available and what works best in their physical and cultural environment. Similarly, the group or community should also be involved in all the steps leading to the acquisition of resources, such as proposal writing, so that they will be able to carry out future projects independently.

The following guidelines should be helpful in deciding which resources are appropriate:

Community Involvement

The success of a development project depends in large part on a solid working relationship between you, others involved in the project, and the residents of the community. You and the community should not only work well together, but also should communicate and share necessary project information, pursue common objectives, and carry out similar activities to support the project.

Local Availability

Using local resources provides the community with much-needed opportunities to develop and demonstrate local initiative, to increase local participation in productive economic activities and to build community self-confidence. In addition, using local resources increases the community's commitment to the project, minimizes the problems of operation and maintenance of technical and material resources and requires minimal cultural adjustments by the community. Finally, using local resources alleviates the risk of dependency which exists when using imported materials and outside funding.

If you are unable to find local resources, try to obtain them elsewhere in the region. Sometimes a regional capital may offer greater resource possibilities than the local community. If sufficient resources are unavailable regionally, try the national level. As the center of the nation's governmental, business , educational and diplomatic activities, the capital city usually has a modern sector which may provide resources which are un-available in the rest of the country.

If you have exhausted the local, regional and national resource possibilities, your last resort is to seek them internationally. Listed below are some considerations which may help you to decide whether or to seek resources at this level:

1) Do all the people involved with your project know that you are looking for outside help, and do they agree that it is necessary? Projects that are planned by one or two people are less likely to succeed and to receive support than those which are supported by an entire group.

2) To what extent does the success of the project depend on getting resources from overseas? Many uncertainties exist in communication, transportation and custom arrangements between nations, and you shouldn't assume that you will receive everything that you requested or have been promised.

3) When do you need the resources, and what are the chances of obtaining them from abroad within the specified time period? Be prepared for delays.

4) What is the likelihood of getting exactly what you need? In seeking resources internationally, your search becomes impersonal and indirect. The possibility of misunderstandings increases, and despite the time and effort that you may have invested, you still may not get exactly what you need.

5) What will you and/or the community do when this outside help is discontinued? This question is almost always asked by donor organizations. They will want to know how your project will continue after their support has ended, and you should be prepared to answer this question thoroughly.

6) What is required of you by outside donor organizations? Many donor organizations have strict guidelines to which you must adhere in order to qualify for and obtain funding. Some of these requirements might include lengthy proposals, detailed budgets, or a commitment of community support. Are the requirements of the organization worth the time and labor investment needed to obtain funding?

Low Cost

Resources should be obtainable at low costs as most developing countries have extremely limited funds. Costs include continuing operation and maintenance in addition to the initial purchasing price. Keep in mind the possibility of getting resources free of

charge. For example, small, local businesses may contribute materials or services if they are made aware of:

1) the positive use to which their donations will be put.

2) the good publicity they will receive.

3) the effect that the success of the project will have on the local economy which will, in turn, increase their own business production and sales.... etc.

Also, it may be possible to obtain resources in exchange for services.

Technological Appropriateness

Projects should maximize the use of locally available technologies and technical skills. Because these technologies are an integral part of the community's culture, and are not easily changed without changing the community's cultural system, Volunteers should assess the consequences of introducing new technological resources into the community. Successful integration of technological resources into a development project requires an extensive knowledge of local economic, political, social and cultural conditions.

Labor Intensity

As has been mentioned, all development projects should use the local people's skills to the greatest extent possible. Emphasizing the use of labor intensive resources increases employment, economic development, and the well-being of the population and its actual participation in development. If several resource possibilities exist, try to choose those that are most labor-intensive while still meeting the other criteria used to measure appropriateness. Whatever the project, make sure that any new resources do not displace existing workers unless acceptable alternative employment--and if necessary, training--in the community is provided.

Cultural Acceptability

The resources which the project uses and introduces to the community must be culturally acceptable to community residents. Volunteers should make every effort to understand all aspects of the culture in which they are living and working. They should evaluate the impact of potential resources on local traditions and cultures. They must also assess the acceptability of the resources that may be produced by the project.

Examples of neglect or misunderstanding of the culture might include the following situations:

1) In a public health education project, development workers introduce into the classroom a textbook on personal hygiene which the students interpret to be contrary to their religious beliefs. Consequently, the students reject the material.

2) In a rural agriculture project, development workers promote the cultivation of new, high-protein foods that the community is not accustomed to growing, cooking or eating. The farmers, who are in frequent contact with development workers, implement the cultivation and harvesting aspects of the project, but their families do not prepare and eat the new foods, and revert to their low-protein, subsistence diets.

Ecological Soundness

Projects should allow for the long-term, sustainable use of resources and should not be detrimental to the natural environment. While you are not expected to become an expert in ecology, you should be able to estimate the ecological impact of your project and the resources that it introduces.

There are issues, such as this one, that you will need to be aware of, but that might never occur to you without information from other sources. This means recognizing that your own knowledge in some areas is limited or even nonexistent, and asking for input from as many sources as you can who might have the expertise you lack.

Planning the Use of Resources

The following checklist outlines the basic steps in planning the use of available resources and can be applied to each type of resource (human, informational, material, etc.).

1) What resources are needed? Resources should be listed for each task that must be accomplished to complete the project.

2) When is the resource needed? Make a timetable so that each resource can be lined up to meet your schedule.

3) Is each resource available locally, regionally, nationally, or internationally? Beginning locally, each level should be exhausted before proceeding to the next.

Resources, cont'd

4) What organizations can provide the resources at each level? The Volunteer can be helpful in identifying less obvious local and outside organizations and individuals that could provide assistance.

5) How do you obtain the resource? Is an application or personal visit required? Are there legal or other requirements that must be met?

6) Does the project timetable allow enough time to obtain the resources? Some financial or material resources may take time to obtain, and human resources may have limited amounts of time to contribute to the project.

7) Will the resources have to be adapted for the project or community? Some technological designs may have to be adapted to suit local conditions. Informational resources may have to be translated into local languages.

8) Will there be a continuing need for outside resources to perpetuate the project, or will a single grant, donation or purchase be sufficient to start and maintain the project? If the community will be receiving only an initial set of supplies and/or a single lump sum of money, the use of these resources must be carefully planned so that they are allocated appropriately.

Points to Consider When Seeking International Assistance

(Adapted from Disability Resources)

1) Research organizations before you ask for support. Talk to other people who have received assistance from the organizations in which you are interested. Write to the organizations for brochures, annual reports, and descriptions of other projects they have sponsored. Be sure that your project is relevant to their concerns.

2) Start out small. In general, you should first ask for information, then technical assistance, and then financial or material assistance. You must earn the trust and confidence of the people who manage the assets of the donor organization.

3) Be familiar with the focus of the organization. What are its priorities, objectives, and purposes?

4) Be prepared to supply extensive information. Organizations will want detailed descriptions of your project. If the project is funded or supported, the

organizations will ask for progress reports and information on results both during the project and after its completion.

5) Make an effort to show how your project is part of a national development program. Donor organizations may be related to, or coincide with, stated national priorities. Integrated national development is important in international development. Remember that most donors want the projects they fund to demonstrate that a new idea will work, that it can be replicated by other groups, and that it will eventually have an effect on more people than just the direct beneficiaries.

Nine Basic Parts of a Proposal

(Adapted from the Grantmanship Center, Program Planning and Proposal Writing, Expanded Version. Reprinted in the Peace Corps In-Service Training Manual.)

1) Cover Letter - Brief, simple, and pleasant.

2) Summary - Write it last, but put it at the beginning. State what the community is requesting and why. Briefly state objectives, total cost, and what is being requested from this funding source. Limit the summary to half a page.

3) Introduction/Description or Background of the Applicant - Describe the agency's or community's qualifications to establish "credibility." Make it interesting. State who is applying for funds. This section might include:

   - When, why, and how the community group was started;
   - The philosophy, purpose, and goals of the community group (but do not dwell on them);
   - The community group's accomplishments and current activities;
   - The community group's relationship to other agencies;
   - Size and characteristics of the population served;
   - Support from important community members (which can be included at the end of the proposal.)

4) Statement of the Problem or Need - Clearly state the community's problem or need--it is the reason for the proposal. Support it with evidence, including statistics.

State clearly who in the community has the problem or need.

The problem or need should be defined in reasonable dimensions so that the proposal can show how the community will address it with help from the funding source. The problem statement should relate to the purposes and goals of the organization or community.

5) Project Objectives - State what specific outcomes the community wants to accomplish. Use words like "to increase," "to decrease," and "to reduce." Each objective should state who will do what, when it will be done, how much will be done, and how it will be measured. The objectives should relate directly to the problem or need.

6) Methods - Clearly describe the activities, methods, or strategies the community will use to accomplish the objectives. State why they chose these particular activities or methods. Describe the sequence of activities (time lines are helpful), the staffing needed, and people who will benefit from these activities. Be realistic and reasonable about the scope of activities and resources and the time needed to accomplish them.

7) Evaluation and Documentation - Explain who will evaluate the project and how and when it will be done. Evaluation has two components: a) outcome or results, and b) process, or how the project was conducted. In the proposal define what criteria will be used to improve the project, and what reports will be made to the funding agency.

8) Future Needs and Funding - If the project will be continued or will require maintenance beyond the funding requested, explain how the community plans to cover future financial needs.

9) Budget - Find out what budget information the funding source requires. Some sources have specific forms. If a budget is long, a budget summary may be written after completing a detailed budget. Include the complete budget of the project, and clearly specify what is being requested from the funding source.

Resources Available Through Peace Corps

Volunteers throughout the world frequently secure funds from a variety of private voluntary organizations (CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Save the Children, etc.); non-governmental organizations (UNICEF, World Bank, etc.); and government agencies and embassies (USAID, Embassy Self-Help Funds, etc.). For a complete listing of development agencies and organizations, request a copy of Resources for Development from ICE.

In addition, several resources are available directly through Peace Corps. Described below are the SPA and Peace Corps Partnership programs, and the Information, Collection and Exchange Division (ICE).

Small Projects Assistance Fund (SPA)

The purpose of the SPA program is to stimulate and support small community self-help efforts through direct grants to community organizations or their designated representatives. The immediate objective of the SPA self-help program is to demonstrate the benefits which can accrue from a community helping itself. There are two components to the SPA program:

1) The SPA fund which directly supports community projects.

2) The Technical Assistance (T.A.) Agreement which provides training and technical advice to Volunteers, staff, and host country nationals who are working on primary or secondary projects in a specific area.

SPA Fund

Each year, AID mission directors and Peace Corps country directors sign country agreements to participate in the SPA program. Through this document, AID agrees to transfer funds to Peace Corps for SPA projects, and Peace Corps accepts responsibility for project approval and administration. (Note: the SPA program was active in thirty-five Peace Corps countries in 1986.)

A Peace Corps Volunteer working with a community organization can submit, to his/her Peace Corps post, a proposal requesting funds for a specific project. Peace Corps staff review and approve the requests.

Criteria

Although some countries tailor the criteria for project approval to meet the specific needs within their communities, all individual projects must meet the following criteria to be approved for SPA funding:

- -The project must be conceived and implemented in conjunction with a local community organization or group. A significant financial or "in-kind" contribution is expected from the community to demonstrate their involvement and commitment.
- -The specific project will not encourage nor require U.S. assistance for continued support.
- -The project supports development in the areas of food production, energy, competitive enterprise development, health, and/or income generation.
- -The project will be complete within one year of its commencement.
- -The contribution of SPA funds toward completion of the project will not exceed $10,000.

SPA grants are made to community groups who are working with Peace Corps Volunteers. Therefore, both the PCV and the community group are responsible for submitting the proposal, setting up and implementing the project, and reporting on the completed project.

Technical Assistance Agreement

Funds are available through Peace Corps/Washington to provide technical assistance which directly supports SPA projects.

For further information, contact: SPA Program Coordinator
Office of Training and Program Support, Room M-701
Peace Corps
806 Connecticut Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20526

Peace Corps Partnership Program (PCPP)

The Peace Corps Partnership Program is a resource you and your community may use to help identify financial support for locally initiated self-help projects. The support comes from American community groups, schools, businesses, foundations, clubs, and individuals. During the course of your "partnership," these Americans will want to remain in touch with your project's progress and may enter into a cross-cultural exchange of letters, artifacts, and other items in your community.

PCVs interested in applying for grants through the PCPP should contact their APCDs for the appropriate forms and requirements.

Criteria

-Project is community initiated and directed.

-Project meets basic community need.

-Community is making self-help contributions of:

a) at least 25% of the total project cost
b) suitable lot and clear land title
c) manual labor to construct project
d) locally available raw materials

-Project equally benefits women

-Community realizes that Partnership funds are for materials only, and there is no further obligation on the part of the U.S. partner.

-Community has reasonably exhausted other means of support

-A stable local and political enviromnment exists.

-Appropriate staff available to implement the project.

-Community intends to participate in cross-cultural exchange and keep their U.S. partners informed of the project's progress.

In addition, the Volunteer must provide:

-background information (communtiy size, history, lifestyles, etc.)

-support data (construction plans, itemized budget, maps, letters, etc.)

Peace Corps' Information Collection and Exchange Division (ICE)

Perhaps the greatest informational resource available to Peace Corps Volunteers is the Information Collection and Exchange Division (ICE) in the Office of Training and Program Support (OTAPS) in Washington. ICE is Peace Corps' central technical information resource in all program areas. ICE's role is to support Volunteers and staff in the field with the most relevant and up-to-date technical material available.

Much of the material that ICE distributes has been generated by the Volunteers themselves in Peace Corps' many years of development work at the community level. ICE thus serves as a means of collecting the best results of Peace Corps programs in the field and sharing them both with other Volunteers and staff and with those working in development outside the Agency.

ICE has published over 100 manuals, reprints, and case studies which provide practical "how-to" information. ICE also maintains an inventory of over 200 publicatons purchased from other sources.

Volunteers can request ICE services directly by writing to the address below. Requests should be as specific as possible to ensure that the materials to be sent are appropriate. Lists of materials are also contained in the Whole ICE Catalog which should be available in all Peace Corps in-country offices.

All correspondence will be answered. Responses are sent to the attention of the requestor via AIR DIPLOMATIC POUCH to the Peace Corps office whenever possible. Requests from countries without pouch service are answered via AIR MAIL. Please allow four to six weeks for delivery.

For further information write to: Information Collection
and Exchange Division
Office of Training and Program
Support, Room M-707
Peace Corps
806 Connecticut Ave., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20526

CHAPTER NINE

GROUP DEVELOPMENT

(Adapted from A Guide for the Perplexed, reprinted from VISTA CURRENTS)

A Peace Corps Volunteer ideally functions as a member of a group, and although you may be expected to take on the role of a group leader, it is important to establish that your role is that of a catalyst, a facilitator, rather than that of an expert. In this section, the role of the facilitator--or "organizer"--as a member of the group is emphasized.

A skilled organizer can have considerable influence on the way a group develops. To do this the organizer must first have an understanding of the various stages a group goes through in its development. Second, the organizer must know what kinds of things can be done to stimulate the process. Third, the organizer must develop the skills needed to effectively move the group forward.

The information that follows is intended to help the organizer by outlining the stages of group development and by pointing out different actions to spur the process. The third requirement, skill in performing these actions, can only be developed through experience and training.

The most important task during this stage is for the group to decide on a common purpose and, in the process, to build enough trust and commitment in its membership to be able to carry it out.

Stage 1: The Floundering Stage

The "floundering stage" is usually the first in a group's development. Some groups disband without ever getting beyond it. A group in this stage has some or all of the following characteristics:

- There are no established ways of doing things. Everyone is uncertain about what is going to happen. There are no norms or traditions.

- People are not sure where they fit into the group and whether they belong. Some may talk unnecessarily to gain recognition. Many others, including those with a lot to say, will remain silent until they figure out what it is all about.

- Many people will be skeptical of the group's ability to do anything. They will think, "How can an unproven group of amateurs like this do anything when all the professionals have failed?" People who feel this way often fail to show up at the next meeting.

- There is no organization, and there are no officers.

- There are no obvious, accepted leaders in the group. Often everyone will try to avoid the responsibility of leadership. At this stage, leadership often comes from outside the group-- for example, from a community organizer.

- The purpose is vague and unclear, and many people may have conflicting ideas about it.

- The membership may be relatively large at this point. Many are there out of curiosity.

- The only really unifying factor may be a common point of concern or interest which led everyone to come in the first place.

The Role of the Organizer

The amount of work the organizer must do varies according to the amount of initiative shown in the group. In many cases, the organizer must be the cement that holds the group together. This means:

- Getting to know the members individually; getting to know their interests, concerns, and lifestyles.

- Building a relationship of trust with the members. This means helping people when possible and getting people to help in return.

- Doing a lot of the initial planning.

- Collecting information on important issues.

- Doing intensive follow-up after the meetings to make sure that important tasks are being carried out.

- Building commitment among members by helping them gain recognition.

Stage 2: The Crawling Stage

The "floundering stage" ends when the group stops going in circles and begins to move in one direction. Since progress is pretty slow at first, the next period is called the "crawling stage." It has the following characteristics:

- The group has agreed upon at least a general purpose and has decided on an initial project.

- Some standard ways of doing things begin to emerge; for example, the "official" and the "real" starting times: meetings are called for 7:30, but they never start before 8:00. Some regular provision is made for refreshments. Seating patterns begin to crystallize.

- Members begin to feel accepted, and roles begin to emerge. For example, one individual may become recognized as the group joker, while another always makes the motion to adjourn.

- The organization is still loose. In some new groups, members resist the idea of permanent officers. Often, it is better to wait until commitment becomes strong enough to demand them. In addition, those who step forward at first may turn out to be unreliable later on.

- Leadership begins to emerge informally.

- The membership is relatively small. Some of those who came to the first meeting left when the group's purpose turned out to be incompatible with their own. Others left when they found out how much time was involved.

- Those who remain are willing to risk a limited amount of faith. Instead of "waiting to see," they begin to say, "Well, I'll give it a try."

- The group may seem "unreal" to its members following meetings. When a person gets home, the commitments made in the group may be forgotten or may not seem possible anymore.

The most important task for the group is to make visible progress toward its goal.

Role of the Organizer

The organizer can help by:

- encouraging the group to be sure that its goals are realistic;

- making sure that the group's first steps succeed;

- encouraging and helping members to take leadership and responsibility even when this takes more time than doing it alone;

- checking with members between meetings to see whether tasks are being carried out;

- checking to see that routine duties are being performed, arrangements are being made for the meeting place, and people are reminded about the meeting. Generally, the organizer should see to it that group members do these tasks.

Stage 3: The Honeymoon Stage

When the group has achieved a few small successes, its members become quite optimistic. Because there have been no bad experiences, and no one is worried about anything going wrong, this is called the "honeymoon stage." It has the following characteristics:

- Procedures for getting things done become more established. The group begins to develop some traditions.

- The formal organization begins to take shape; the group decides that it must have officers and elects them.

- The members begin to take the group seriously and believe in it.

- Commitment is high. People show this by talking about the group to others outside the meetings.

- People begin to feel even more accepted in the group; they can "be themselves."

- The activities of the group become very time-consuming.

- Some members respond by taking more responsibility.

- Others may find that the activities take too much time.

- New people may come to some of the meetings.

- The members feel that their goal is realistic, and they expect success.

The most important task for the group at this point is to become as strong as possible while the "going is good." It should bring in new members and develop a strong foundation for any setbacks that may come later.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer should help by:

- discouraging overconfidence;
- anticipating problems that may be building up beneath the surface and preparing the group for them;
- encouraging the group to expand its membership.
- helping the group improve its skill in getting things done; running meetings, and performing the basic functions of maintenance;
- reinforcing the commitment of the group members;
- working out any leadership roles that the organizer may have assumed in the beginning;
- avoiding taking credit for the success of the group--pass recognition to the group members;
- passing on information to the group.

Stage 4: The Fall

All good things, including honeymoons, must come to an end. Sooner or later, every group experiences its first crisis. Some typical examples are:

- a serious and unexpected obstacle crops up;
- only two or three members come to an important meeting when many more were expected;
- hidden conflicts within the group become apparent;
- the group is attacked by a respected figure in the community.

Members of the group will usually respond to a crisis by:

- blaming each other: "S/he didn't do his/her share..."
- dropping out or threatening to do so: "I knew it couldn't work." "I'm not going to come here anymore if its going to be like this."
- lessening their commitment by reverting back to the "wait and see" attitude;

- Doing less. Members find excuses for avoiding meetings, avoiding action, and even avoiding the problem.

The most important task for the group is to find out what the real problem is, what caused it, and decide on a course of action that will resolve it.

The organizer can help by turning the crisis into a learning and growing experience for the group. This can be done by:

- not getting depressed;
- not blaming individuals in the group;
- providing a little humor, a little perspective, and a lot of faith and confidence: "Well, people have survived worse things; at least we're not dead."
- helping the group analyze the reasons for the crisis;
- training the group in problem-solving;
- encouraging the group to set new goals, if necessary;
- helping the group develop new leadership, if necessary.

Stage 5: The Walking Stage

When the group recovers from its first crisis, it is likely to be on firmer ground and have clearer objectives and a plan for reaching them. Members will also know each other better, and working together is easier as a result. The group is no longer crawling or floating in the clouds but walking on solid ground. The characteristics of the "walking stage" are:

- The active membership may be small- sometimes less than 10 people- but effective.
- There are others who do not come to the meetings regularly but help in other ways.
- The members are very strongly committed to the group's goals.
- The leadership is stable and well-developed.

- The group's traditions and ways of doing things are well-established.

- The members are confident of their own place and feel free to act naturally.

- Meetings are not free of conflict, but they are fun and usually productive.

- The members are confident in the ability of the group to achieve its goals.

The most important task for the group is to assume full reponsibility for all of its functions and to end its dependence on the organizer.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer should:

- pass the responsibility for planning on to the group as soon as possible;

- train group leaders and others;

- help the group develop and refine the essential processes to carry on. These processes include:

    - Planning and goal-setting;
    - Accomplishing its goals;
    - Recruitment;
    - Leadership development;
    - Group maintenance;
    - Problem-solving;
    - Foreign relations: coalition-building and getting outside help and advice;
    - Evaluation of the group's performance and an analysis of its shortcomings.

Stage 6: Success

If the group survives long enough, and its members work hard, there is a good chance that they will finally achieve their ultimate goal. When this happens, the group has the following characteristics:

- Its members are exuberant and on top of the world.

- The group is likely to receive publicity and favorable notice from the rest of the community.

- Its leaders may be approached by local politicians and others who perhaps have been enemies in the past. The group's leaders may be invited to join "the establishment."

- Self-confidence is at an all-time high.

The most important task of the group at this point is to celebrate and live it up. They have worked very hard, and they deserve a party. Real celebrations can greatly strengthen unity as well.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer should encourage celebration but should refuse to take credit for the group's achievement.

Stage 7: The Anti-Climax

Sometimes success can kill a group faster than failure. In any case, an anti-climactic period is likely to follow a big success. Its characteristics are:

- The pace slows down.

- The number of people at meetings drops sharply.

- Commitment drops; people shift their energies to their families or jobs which they may have neglected during the height of group activity.

- First comes rationalization; people say "it's because of the bad weather (in winter) or good weather (in summer- everybody is out fishing or picnicking)."

- Then demoralization sets in. The leaders become discouraged.

- Some, including leaders, may wish to retire; they believe that they have made their contribution.

The most important task is to understand what is happening and revitalize the group. A vacation-type slowdown may be healthy, but the group should be able to get going after a month or two.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer can assist by:

- explaining what is happening and discussing it openly;

- encouraging the group to find a new cause, set new goals, and decide when to begin.

- helping the group institutionalize the gains it has made so that they are not lost in the slowdown;

- helping the group find new members and rotate its leadership.

Stage 8: The Complacent Rut

Often after achieving a big success, a group will fall into a rut. Self-confidence turns into complacency: "We've done our bit; we don't have to knock ourselves out anymore." The characteristics of this stage are as follows:

- The group's action become social rather than issue-oriented;

- The members feel that they achieve status by merely belonging to the group;

- New people may attend one meeting, but they are not made to feel welcome and rarely come back;

- The group structure and traditions are so well-established that they become rigid. There is a strong emphasis on procedure-- but no action.

The most important task is for the group to revitalize itself.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer can help by:

- broadening the horizons of the group members;

- helping the group to see itself and what has happened to it;

- educating the group about important and relevant issues;

- helping the group find a new cause and take action;

- helping the group find new leadership;

- helping the group find new people.

Stage 9: The Ungrateful Stage

Sometimes, in the process of growing up, groups, like individuals, will challenge "authority figures." In the case of a community group, the community organizer is a likely target. If the organizer has assumed too much authority or leadership, such an attack may be fully justified and very necessary if the group is to survive. In other cases, however, the group simply may be looking for someone else to blame for its own shortcomings. In any case, this stage has the following characteristics:

- The group either blames the organizer for its faults or spots genuine faults in the organizer's approach;
- The members have a high degree of self-confidence in their ability to achieve their goals;
- The group is moving toward self-sufficiency but may be acting partly out of a need to assert its own strength.

The most important task for the group at this point is to avoid any tendency for blaming all their failings on one person.

The Role of the Organizer

The organizer can help by:

- setting an example by carefully examining his or her own behavior and honestly admitting and facing personal mistakes;
- encouraging the group to do the same;
- letting the group have its way and expressing the willingness to help if needed;
- avoiding bitterness; being "moved on" often indicates a certain degree of success.

Stage 10: Self-Sufficiency

The final stage is self-sufficiency. The group is no longer dependent on anyone and has developed effective procedures for carrying out all functions of survival. Once again, these are:

- planning and goal-setting;
- accomplishing its goals;
- leadership development and rotation;

Group Development, cont'd

- problem-solving and handling crises;
- foreign relations;
- getting outside help and advice;
- evaluation.

Besides this, the group is acknowledged and respected in the community. However, in time, it will most likely become less radical and more conservative.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: SECTOR INTERVIEWS

The Sector Specialists at Peace Corps' Office of Training and Program Support (OTAPS) have both technical expertise and practical experience in identifying and administering projects in the field. Here, they offer suggestions for resources that they believe to be particularly helpful to projects in their areas.

FISHERIES SECTOR

For simple projects, PCVs wanting to initiate a project do not need much technical background. The best sources of information are other Fish PCVs, APCDs, and the Sector Specialist in Washington.

Helpful Manuals:

"Fishpond Management," available at ICE.

Resources:

The SPA fund; local ministries; in some countries, OXFAM will provide small grants if the project is food production/health oriented.

FORESTRY SECTOR

Little or no technical background necessary for simple projects. Projects in forestry can:

- increase awareness of natural resources and conservation.
- alert people to the problem of deforestation/ fuel wood shortages.
- Provide an example. (i.e. that reforestation is possible.

Helpful Manuals:

"Reforestation in Arid Lands," ICE.
"Teaching Conservation in Developing Countries," ICE.
"Planning Conservation Education Programs in Developing Countries," ICE.

Sector Interviews, cont'd

Resources:

SPA funds; host country forest service; can collect seeds on your own or as a class field trip.

AGRICULTURE SECTOR

Again, best source of information is AG. PCV, APCD. Agriculture projects can promote/teach:

- health/nutrition
- food production
- income generation
- soil conservation

Helpful Manuals:

There are numerous agricultural-related "how-to" manuals in ICE.

SMALL ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT SECTOR

Gary says that PCVs are in an excellent position to help start small businesses and emphasizes the importance of documenting successes and failures.

Helpful Manuals:

"Income Generation for Cooperatives," ICE.
"Starting a Small Business in Jamaica," ICE. (can be universally applied)
"Crafts Development and Marketing Manual'" will be available from ICE in a few months.

Sector Interviews, cont.

Resources:

SPA fund; Trickle-Up; Ambassador Self-help fund.

WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

Regardless of the nature of the secondary project, the PCV must apply the usual criteria and precautions when initiating projects involving women. In addition, the following must be considered:

- What is special about working with women? Keep in mind that the project must be useful and applicable as most women have little time. (i.e. don't teach literacy just for literacy's sake.)
- Be particularly aware of the difference between wants and needs.
- Always be aware that what you do in class can influence ideas re: women.

Helpful Manuals:

"Women Working Together," concentrates on priority-setting and community organizing.
"Navamaga," contains training activities.
"Supporting Women's Enterprise Development," (replaces "Beyond the Borders"). Comprised of discussion, ideas on project implementation.
"Women's Income-Generating Projects."
"Crafts Marketing."

all available through ICE.

Resources:

Trickle-Up; SPA Fund; Peace Corps Partnership; U.N. Development Fund for Women (not available to PCVs, but to HCNs)

Sector interviews, cont'd

HEALTH SECTOR

The Health Sector Specialist in Washington would like to emphasize the following:

- Peace Corps Volunteers without proper backgrounds in health should not get involved in health projects until they have been adequately trained.

- Such training, usually in the form of an In-Service Training, can be requested by the PCVs. The feasibility of conducting an IST will depend on the country. The Health Sector in Washington will provide all the necessary materials to conduct the IST.

In several countries, such as Swaziland and Nepal, ISTs were organized in response to requests and interest on the part of "nonhealth" PCVs. The ISTs usually last 5-8 days and can help the Volunteers determine what role they can play in their communities, how they might conduct community diagnoses and assessments, how and when to implement oral rehydration therapy, etc.

Non-health PCVs can also participate in nutritional status surveys being conducted by other groups and/or organizations. In some societies, village health committees have been formed, thus providing another "in" for a PCV interested in a health-related project. Teachers can take advantage of their access to children and young adults by integrating health education components into their regular lessons and/or by developing a health education curriculum.

Useful Manuals:

"Oral Rehydration Therapy and the Control of Diarrheal Diseases."

"Combatting Childhood Communicable Diseases."

"Nutrition Improvement Through Mixed Gardening."

WATER AND SANITATION SECTOR

Education Volunteers interested in getting involved in basic water and/or sanitation projects do not need many resources or a great deal of technical expertise. With assistance from Water/Sanitation PCVs and from the various manuals and other "how-to" books available from the ICE office at Peace Corps Headquarters in Washington, most "non-water" PCVs should be able to initiate and execute water projects. In several countries, In-Service Trainings (ISTs) were held to teach non-water PCVs how to carry out simple projects such as latrine building, rainwater catchment systems, and ferrocement cistern construction for water storage.

Resources:

Water projects have been funded by grants and donations from embassies, Private Voluntary Organizations (PVOs), the United Nations, USAID, Peace Corps Partnership, and SPA, to name a few. Often, it is possible to coordinate your efforts with other aid organizations working in your region or community.

Helpful Manuals:

"Rural Water/Sanitation Projects: Water for the World," published by A.I.D. Available from I.C.E.

"Ferrocement Water Tanks and Their Construction."

"Hand Pumps."

"Water and Sanitation Technologies Manual," (4 volumes):

- "A Workshop Design for Latrine Construction."
- "A Workshop Design for Rainwater Roof Catchment Systems."
- "A Workshop Design for Handpump Installations and Maintenance."
- "A Workshop Design for Spring Capping."

APPENDIX B: "SHORT TAKES"

The following are short summaries of projects that were actually implemented in the field. They are meant not to illustrate the relative success of the projects, but to provide an example of the types of secondary projects initiated by Volunteers.

Water Storage: Lesotho

This project involved building four ferrocement water storage tanks and providing rain gutters for the roofs of buildings to be used for rain catchment. The community provided sand, tools, the use of workshops, and the labor. SPA funds were used to purchase construction materials.

Mango Trees Project: Thailand

This activity involved the planting of four varieties of mango trees on a plot provided by the Ban Khon Phittaya School. Local farmers plowed the field. Student members of Future Farmers of Thailand dug and fertilized the holes, planted the trees and provided all the labor needed to maintain the trees. The school staff supervised the project. SPA funds were used to purchase 80 trees, pruning shears, and fertilizer.

Rabbit Raising Club: Benin

This project involved the establishment of a rabbit raising club for a group of local students. SPA funds were used to purchase the rabbits, construction materials to build the hutches, and an initial feed stock. The group of students that received training from the PCV was then responsible for helping others in its school start their own projects. This project provided income for the students and increased the amount of protein in the diets of their families.

High School Garden Project: Mali

The 1300 students of the Sikasso High School learned to construct and maintain their own gardens through daily instruction and practice. This was a year-round project and also included a tree nursery and a large compost pile for fertilizing the adjoining peanut field. The revenue from the sale of garden peanuts went into the school treasury. The high school students supplied the labor, fertilizer, seeds, and hoes. SPA funds were used to purchase fencing materials and gardening tools.

"Short-Takes", cont'd

Sign Language Manual: Morocco:

This project involved compiling a manual of 725 standardized signs to be used by teachers of the hearing-impaired in Morocco. The project was initiated because there was no standardized sign language at the school where the PCV was working, which created a serious communication problem between the students and teachers. The manual is being translated into French, Arabic, and Spanish, and the translation fees are being paid for by a U.S. Rotary Club.

Collection and Translation of Folk Tales: Morocco:

The purpose of this project was to collect Moroccan folk tales, translate them into English, and publish them as "readers" for Moroccan students of English. The PCV initiated this project because she was dissatisfied with the quality, quantity, price, and relevance of the materials available. She also wanted to help keep the old stories alive for the younger generations. The PCV's counterpart, a Moroccan teacher of English, is currently negotiating a contract for the publication of the collection.

Renewal of Gravity-fed Water System: Sierra Leone:

This project involved revamping a gravity-fed water system that originally had been built by a PCV in the early 1960's. CARE funded the entire project. Though the new PCV didn't have any technical background in basic water pipe engineering, other Water/Sanitation PCVs helped her out and suggested that she contact CARE. There were many delays (for example, it took 14 months for the new pipes to arrive), but after nearly two years of work, the new system was finally completed.

Construction of Handicraft Huts: Sierra Leone:

A PCV in Sierra Leone helped a Host Country teacher build two handicraft huts and equip them with tools. One was built at a school for day use; the other in the village for afternoon use. The U.S. Embassy's Self-Help Fund provided $2000 to purchase the tools. The town provided land, and the villagers donated the building materials. The headmaster of the school provided the managerial skills, and the teacher, the handicraft skills. The immediate goal of this project was to generate a much needed increase in income for the teacher, and he approached the PCV for advice. Building these huts allowed the teacher to stay in the local area and train students in his skills while still meeting his original goals.

Textbook for Teachers of the Deaf: Ecuador:

The PCV, whose primary assignment was in Deaf Education, wrote this textbook for teachers of the deaf. The text includes lessons, activities, signs, and a developed curriculum for teaching, reading, writing, and sign language. The Peace Corps provided funds to mimeograph 40 copies, and the book has been distributed to about a dozen schools. The PCV felt his project was very rewarding. "It got me to think and work on a different level- to communicate in a broader way." He adds that, "It's satisfying to have teachers thank you and to see the book being used."

Boy Scout/Girl Scout Clubs: Sierra Leone:

This project involved organizing boy scout and girl scout troops. A Sierra Leonean Catholic priest, at the suggestion of the PCV, introduced the idea to the local school staff. The Catholic Church provided uniform shirt material, and the members of the troop later worked on local farms clearing brush to earn additional funds. Other activities included holding "campfires" for the community, making devil costumes for performances, and helping local farmers. The girls club made complete costumes for their dance troop. The PCV writes that, "The projects were successful because they allowed me to interact with the young adults of the village in an organized but informal way."

Tutoring: St. Kitts, Eastern Caribbean:

The PCV, whose primary assignment was in special education, tutored a fifth grade dyslexic boy one evening per week. She worked toward improving his reading, comprehension, composition, and handwriting skills. Although the PCV had been trained in teaching children with learning disabilities, she believes that many Volunteers without such background could assist neighborhood/village children in this way. But she adds that, "it is most important to have family/parent support and understanding of the work you will be doing."

APPENDIX C: CASE STUDIES

The case studies that follow are detailed accounts of actual secondary projects. Examination of them allows you to analyze the manner in which they were selected, implemented and evaluated, and to relate your analysis to the issues that have been presented in this manual.

CASE STUDY #1

When Teresa Saunders arrived in Fiji, she assumed her post as a Secondary School Math teacher. Soon after she had arrived, she discovered that the school's library had been "out of commission" for nearly a year. There existed a collection of books, but it was being kept in the principal's office, where it was inaccessible to the students. Although she had no real library experience, she did have an avid interest in books, and she decided to take on the task of reorganizing the school library as her secondary project. Teresa felt that this particular project would benefit the students by improving their English, as she planned to order mainly books written in English, Fiji's official language.

A classroom had already been made available for use as a library, but that was the only detail that had been taken care of when Teresa began the project. The books needed to be organized in an ordered system, a method of keeping track of acquisitions had to be established, and an interest in the books among the students had to be renewed. New books to stock the library had to be purchased, and funds for materials needed to maintain the library once it was established would have to be sought.

Teresa began the project as a "helper" to the Assistant Principal, who was officially in charge of the library. Soon after Teresa had begun, the Assistant Principal became ill, and at this point Teresa assumed complete charge of the project. She enlisted the aid of some of her coworkers: a nun who taught at the school assisted in getting some of the books circulated, and a number of the other Fijian teachers helped in the organization and "hands-on" work of preparing the books for circulation. With the help of these people, Teresa assigned Dewey Decimal numbers to the non-fiction books and alphabetized the fiction. The books were labeled accordingly. Teresa also began a system of recording all library acquisitions in a ledger.

In order to obtain funds, Teresa approached both her community and sources outside her community. The school held an event called "Mufti Day", when students could come to school out of uniform and pay a 10¢ fee, or come in uniform and pay 15¢. At the end of one term, a school dance was held which raised $150. Once the library had begun lending books, fines were charged to

students who were late turning the books back in. With the funds raised from these sources, supplies such as cardboard for reinforcing the paperback book covers, glue, rubber cement, and contact paper were purchased. Teresa also solicited books from overseas sources, including the Darien Book Aid Plan and the Scholastic Book Service in the United States. These were books written in English.

In the time that Teresa worked on the project, over 1,000 books were purchased. Teresa felt that the project was a success. "When I arrived", she says, "the few books in the library were mostly old and not of a suitable level for secondary school students. The books we acquired were easier and very popular. I believe that the library is still in operation. I have been in touch with the subsequent librarian who reports that the students are still reading the books. I really enjoyed seeing progress being mad in the library. The students certainly were enthusiastic about reading. The project provided me with an outlet into which to channel my energies. It was also a project that would never be finished and provided a constant source of work. A number of students spent time assisting in the library; thus, they felt more a part of it."

CASE STUDY #2

Bill Waters was sent to Sierra Leone as an Elementary Education Workshop Instructor. The secondary project that he chose was a rabbit-raising project. He chose this particular project because he perceived a need for an increased amount of protein in the diets of the members of his community, and also because he himself liked rabbit meat.

Bill had never had experience raising rabbits for consumption or for sale. He did, however have some experience raising small animals, as he had had rabbits, hamsters, and guinea pigs as pets at home. In order to supplement his knowledge, he ordered two publications from ICE, and found two useful texts in the in-country Resource Center.

To begin the project, Bill purchased two rabbits, a male and a female. He arranged for a local man and the man's younger brother to care for them. It was decided that the man would do this in exchange for the meat from the rabbits.

Within the first two months, many problems arose. Bill discovered that the rabbits were being mistreated, that they were not being fed correctly and that they were not being given water. The man and his brother argued with Bill over the terms of the original agreement, and Bill realized that he would need additional help.

In the third month, Bill called in an agricultural extension agent. Together they built a new wooden cage with six pens. Later on, they built an additional two pens.

More problems arose. At one point, the male rabbit acquired an ear infection. Because neither Bill nor the man had any skills in caring for sick animals, they were forced to get medicine from a veterinarian in town. The man caring for the rabbits drove his car into town for the medicine and paid for it with his own money.

At the time that Bill left, the man had thirteen rabbits. He had sold one of them, and at approximately twice the original price.

QUESTIONS FOR CASE STUDIES

1. Do you think that the projects undertaken in the case studies were successful? Unsuccessful? On what criteria are you basing your assessment?

2. Examine the way in which each project was initiated. Note the differences in the approach of each Volunteer. How do you think that the way they began their respective projects affected the project's outcome?

3. How aware of their respective community's situation was each Volunteer? Based on the information given, what sort of analysis took place in each case?

4. To what extent was the community involved in each project? What difference did this make to their success?

5. How did each Volunteer utilize local resources? What difference did this utilization make to the projects' outcome?

6. How did the Volunteers handle problems that arose?

7. Knowing what you know now, in what ways could each Volunteer have improved his/her project?

SKILLS AND LANGUAGE SURVEY

Name: College Degree:

Town: Certification/Training in other areas:

Language ability (self evaluation)
List languages you speak:

Could you work on a project solely in this (these) language(s)? If not, what do you feel you are lacking?

Please indicate your interest in the following areas: (1) high interest (2) some interest (3) little/no interest

If you have former experience, please indicate in the blank. Feel free to continue on the back of this sheet.

_____1 2 3 Food Production
_____1 2 3 Animal Husbandry
_____1 2 3 First Aid
_____1 2 3 Boy/Girl Scouts
_____1 2 3 Child Care
_____1 2 3 Hospital Aid
_____1 2 3 Small Business
_____1 2 3 Sanitation
_____1 2 3 Immunization
_____1 2 3 Nutrition
_____1 2 3 Other

_____1 2 3 Wood Shop
_____1 2 3 Metal Shop
_____1 2 3 Work w/Handicapped
_____1 2 3 Arts and Crafts
_____1 2 3 Water Safety
_____1 2 3 Coaching Sports
_____1 2 3 Women's Groups
_____1 2 3 Library Work
_____1 2 3 Youth Service
_____1 2 3 Camp Counsellor

With what age group do you feel you work best?

Please evaluate your school in the following areas:

Administration support/control

Facilities (materials, equipment)

Student interest

Contact between teachers

Other teachers' interest in project and extra activities

Your rapport with students, with administration

Please list any activities outside of work (clubs, tutoring, etc)

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Since 1961 when the Peace Corps was created, more than 80,000 U.S. citizens have served as Volunteers in developing countries, living and working among the people of the Third World as colleagues and co-workers. Today 6000 PCVs are involved in programs designed to help strengthen local capacity to address such fundamental concerns as food production, water supply, energy development, nutrition and health education and reforestation.

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